at work, the convener can look for behavior which does or does not support the goal statements. Information about any discrepancies between stated objectives and member behaviors should be fedback to the team. After discrepancies are brought into the open, the goal statements can be modified or team members may agree to change their behaviors.

It is also the role of the convener to emphasize the importance of continual reassessment of goals. The team's goals may be adjusted as work towards them proceeds. Although some goals may prove to be unrealistic, others may not seem relevant to the current direction of the team's work. When team members take for granted that the reworking of goals is a central part of their teamwork, then they may be more capable of avoiding many of the tensions which arise when discrepancies between stated goals and their actual behavior occur.

(4) <u>Integrating personal goals with group goals</u>. Team members' satisfactions increase as they see their personal goals being integrated into the team's goals. The convener can facilitate integration of individual and team interests by having team members spend time thinking about what their personal goals are. An exercise that could be helpful begins with each team member writing his or her personal goals on a large sheet of newsprint. The pages of newsprint are next posted around the room and everyone reads all the pages. On the same page or an adjacent blank one, anyone writes down a team goal or team task which he or she feels could help to satisfy a listed personal goal. After the reading and writing are completed, team members again look at their own lists and the added suggestions. Finally, the team as a whole discusses what has been learned about team functioning and the goals which should be pursued jointly.

<u>Managing conflicts on the team</u>. Another important function of the

convener involves uncovering, pinpointing, and encouraging constructive work on conflicts. Although disagreements among team members indicate that conflict is present on the team, the conflict can be constructive when discussion and exploration of differences occur. The energy that grows out of conflict can be very helpful to the team if constructive and creative problem solving occurs as a consequence.

Conveners can play a constructive part in the face of conflict when they pinpoint the specific issues when disagreement is occurring. It is important for the convener to keep conflicts from becoming more general than they really are. Thus, two team members who disagree about how the work is to be carried out, but who at the same time hold similar goals for the team, can be urged to create constructive ways in which each can work toward the larger good while still doing some tasks differently. It is important in this instance that the particular area of conflict is acknowledged and that a small conflict is not allowed to escalate into an intense interpersonal fued. The convener should encourage open discussion to help the two team members to come to grips with a resolution.

Many conflicts, although not all by any means, arise because of poor communication. Two or more team members become embroiled in a series of misunderstandings, rumors, and misinterpretations. The convener can facilitate understanding in these instances by encouraging team members to practice the communication skills described above. Misinterpretations can be clarified, misunderstandings can be reduced, and rumor can be laid to rest by being specific about behaviors, feelings, and beliefs. The convener can take a neutral position in attempting to reduce such interpersonal ambiguities.

The convener can suggest several activities for helping the team to deal with conflict:

(1) The worst fantasy: A major psychological obstacle to negotiating solutions to conflict is fear of what would happen if one party gives in. The worst fantasy activity is a way in which the conflicting parties can explore their own fears, while revealing to the others how threatening the situation is. Using a real conflict, the adversaries imagine what the worst happening could be if the other individual or subgroup should gain what it wanted from the conflict. For example, a third grade teacher on the primary team might fear that if the first and second grade teachers adopt the new reading procedure they have in mind that all students coming into the third grade reading groups will be incompetent readers and that she will be burdened with the heavy load of remedial reading. Or, another example could involve a head counselor in a senior high who fears that if leadership rotates among all counselors on the team that he would not be able to run the human relations groups he wants because other counselors believe that they are a waste of time.

These conflicts are not atypical in educational teams; they can be managed if the fantasies of the adversaries are shared. The convener can encourage resolution by having the two sides explore how each thinks about the very worst fantasy of the other. Would side A suffer its worst fantasy if side B got what it wanted? For example, if B gets the role of representing the team in discussions with the principal about scheduling, will A get the worst schedule arrangement plus before-school duty? Obviously once worst fears are brought out into the open, agreement can more easily be reached which will protect each party -- or if the reality of a fear is actually devastating, an open discussion can show that A should or should not back down, etc. Once conflicts are revealed, constructive steps can begin to be worked out.

(2) Careful observations. By watching a team at work, the convener can begin to pick up clues about conflict. Does some team member continually introduce irritation to a discussion or hostility to a disagreement? Do these behaviors seem warranted? Do some team issues get discussed only superficially as if members were avoiding real difficulties? Do some members keep watching (but not talking) as if they are fearful of what might happen next? Do some members seem never to talk to one another? Do some team members' contributions constantly get ignored or plopped? Are tense feelings present while some team members are interacting.

Many clues like these can help the convener and other team members to realize that conflicts on the team are present. Once conflicts are noted, the convener should hazard an impression check to raise the conflict into the open. Then discussion occurs, the conflict-issues are sharpened, and miscommunications are settled. After real differences are agreed upon, problem solving and negotiation is encouraged. The next section deals with problem solving procedures which can facilitate a team's functioning.

Organizing problem solving. A critical set of activities for any team involves problem solving. As we view it, a problem is a discrepancy between a goal and a current state of affairs. Thus, for a pair of adversaries to engage in problem solving they must at the outset agree on some overarching goal and see their present situation as falling short of that goal. The astute convener or team member will attempt to get those in conflict to focus on their common goals and their disparate current points of view.

A useful system of problem solving constitutes three elements: the situation, target, and paths. The situation is the ways things are;

targets are team or personal goals; paths are actions to take for moving from the current situation to the team's targets. Astute conveners will keep these elements of problem solving in consideration as they attempt to help the team take on a problem-solving orientation. The targets set up the objectives toward which the team will move -- the current situation must be known -- and the paths are the mainsprings of team members' creativity and self-renewal.

The following steps are part of a problem-solving sequence that a team may want to use:

(1) Clarifying the problem. The team should avoid the pitfall of getting hung up on words during this early phase of problem solving. Some team members may prefer to speak of goals, others may like to speak of problems, while others may prefer the neutral label of issues. But the convener should remember that all goals reflect implicit problems, all problems indicate issues to be considered, and all issues take on their importance from the goals they involve.

The convener should encourage team members to describe problems concretely and specifically, mentioning actual events, places, people, and resources. The problem statements should be written where everyone can see them, on a blackboard or a sheet of newsprint or the like. And, members should be encouraged to mention as many problems as they can think of, placing by each problem statement the goal that is not being reached.

Next, all team members review what has been written and attempt to reduce the list to a fewer number of problem statements and goals. Then, the reduced list is reviewed by the team another time so that all of the factors involved in any particular problem can be brought out into the open. Finally, during this first step in problem solving, the convener encourages the team to choose one problem and one goal to be attacked.

(2) Analyzing the problem. Once the situation and target have been clarified and team members share a working agreement about them, it is useful for team members to think of all of the forces that are keeping the team from moving toward its target (hindering forces) and all the forces that are helping the team to move toward its target (helping forces).

The team will discover that some of these forces are more impor- tant than others and that some are unchangeable. The forces that cannot be changed must be accepted as an integral part of the situation, and team members should be thinking about ways to work around them. Most time is spent during this step in problem solving in thinking of ways to reduce the strength of the hindering forces. It is important for the convener to encourage everyone to give their ideas about the hindering forces. Sometimes, the team may wish to ask an outside resource person to contribute some ideas during this step.

(3) Generating alternative paths. Now, with the primary hindering forces in mind, team members attempt to think of various paths to move from the situation to the target. One way to produce a lot of ideas fairly quickly is to have team members use the technique of brainstorming. The rule during brainstorming is to accept all ideas that are thrown out without evaluating them. Often a time limit is placed on the team. Usually, the convener asks team members also to focus on one or two hindering forces at a time and to generate paths of action to overcome these restraints. One or two team members act as recorders, and team members try to throw out many ideas quickly. The ideas are supposed to be stated briefly, without being explained. The ideas do not necessarily have to be practical nor do the contributors have to say how the ideas will be implemented. Ideally,

spontaneity and creativity become contagious and team members relay as they bounce thoughts off of one another.

(4) <u>Criticizing the brainstormed paths</u>. During the brainstorming team members were asked to set aside critical judgments. Now is the time to use critical judgment in attempting to come up with some feasible and reasonable action plans. Once idea generating is over the team settles down to discussing and understanding the ideas that have been presented. The convener tries to help members establish a constructive and creative approach. How might a way-out idea be carried out? What new and innovative things can we do? Once team members have discussed all of the brainstormed ideas, they can begin to evaluate and to choose those paths that they really want to pursue.

(5) <u>Generating a plan of action</u>. Next, team members try to bring the various paths from step 4 into a single, integrated design for action. The plan itself should be specific and concrete. The design should include <u>who</u> will do <u>what</u> and <u>when</u>. And is it important that all of the team members who will be expected to participate in the plan should be a part of the designing process. For example, an action plan generated by a ficticious team that is looking for new ways to evaluate student progress in social studies might be that Mr. T. and Ms. S. will talk with the district's evaluation specialist about available evaluation techniques before the end of the month and that Mr. G. will look up references to social studies evaluation in the University library during the next three weeks.

Once a design for action has been generated, the team members should spend a little time imagining how their new actions might work out. What might get in the way of implementing the design? The design is then revised according to team members' guesses about how the plan might work best. Often, the fresh point of view of an outsider can be useful to the team at this point. Time spent by the team on this kind of projection and revision will be much less than the time demanded to launch the action, to struggle with the actual forces, and then to come back to evaluate and revise. Creative imagination and guessing used now can ward off some of the biggest weaknesses in the design.

(6) Trying out the plan. Team members are now ready to put the plan into action. As the plan takes shape in the real world, both the way the team works together and the effectiveness of the plan should be evaluated. The convener should encourage team members to look carefully at what happens and to suggest changes in the plan as needed. Evaluation by team members themselves will help them to see what is working well and what needs changing. Ultimately, evaluation by team members will encourage them to start a new problem solving cycle.

A microdesign for problem solving. After team members have experienced some problem solving of the type described above, they may be ready to short circuit some of the steps and to get to solutions more quickly. The following microdesign has four steps: (1) writing problem statements -- each statement includes a description of the situation and a target statement; (2) alternative solutions -- brainstorming action paths occurs during this step. It is important for the convener to keep the team on to the rules of brainstorming; (3) choosing the five most likely alternatives -- by voting, the team can reduce to brainstormed list to about 10. Then by discussion, the five most likely and feasible ideas are selected; and (4) making action plans -- once the five alternative solutions have been decided on, the team moves on to making action plans. The five paths are put in the order in which they will be implemented. Each path is stated specifically and concretely and linked to every other path.

Facilitating decision making. Team members should be aware of different methods for making decisions. Sometimes, for instance, decisions will best be made by individuals, especially when they have particular expertise or when the decisions involve only a few team members. But, other times, it will be important for team members to obtain a majority vote or even unanimity when all team members must be involved in implementing the decision.

The convener should help the team to be clear on the decision-making procedure it is using for each issue. It is useful to have a category system in mind about decision making so that team members will have a common vocabulary. One such system includes the following kinds of participation in decision making: (1) informed -- this is the weakest position in relation to decision-making; it requires that the team member is simply informed about the decision after it is made. (2) Consulted -- this kind of participation specifies that the team member must be consulted prior to the time of decision-making. (3) Involved -- this means that the team member participates directly in the decision-making process. Usually a vote of some majority is required during such a process. (4) Veto -- here the team member can call off a decision that has been made. This gives the person with veto power considerable influence in relation to the entire decision-making process. And finally, (5) authority -- here the team member has the legitimate right to make the decision on his or her own without consulting or participating with others. It represents the highest amount of power in decision-making.

The convener should encourage team members to reach clarity in how they will handle their decision-making. One procedure for doing this is to use a matrix in which issues for decision-making are listed down the left hand side vertically and the positions or roles on the team are listed across the top horizontally. The cells of the matrix are filled out with the five types of influence listed above. For an example of this procedure, see the chapter on decision making in the Handbook of Organization Development in Schools (see annotated reference in Chapter 6).

Perhaps the most important set of activities for team members to get into relation to decision making is what we refer to as consensus decision-making. By consensus decision-making we refer to a discussion process not to nuanimity or complete agreement of every member. During a consensus discussion, members are obliged to paraphrase what the key points of disagreement in the team are. Then, members are encouraged to find creative compromises. The convener takes care to point out what the minority position is and to paraphrase it. The team strives to find a solution that encompasses the major points of the minority position. After thorough discussion, those members who still cannot completely agree with the majority position are asked if they can live with the decision for a prescribed period of time. It is important at this point for the convener to initiate a team survey. In the survey, every member is obliged to report publicly what he or she thinks or feels about the issue. Finally, a pact is made on the team to carry out the decision for a prescribed period of time.

Procedures for Effective Team Meetings

Meetings are important for the effective functioning of any educational team; they serve as the communication center of the team. Team members have the opportunity to share information in face-to-face, two way dialogue. Thus, team members get the benefit of receiving direct feedback about the messages they are sending and receiving and thereby get some assurance that they have been understood.

Meetings of the team also provide a forum for collaborative decision making and consensus discussions. With all the team members present all the available information can be heard, all of the sides of an issue can be presented and a collective, clearly understood decision can be reached. At subsequent team meetings, the implementation of decisions and plans for action can be monitored. Meetings, thus, assure a sense of continuity to team planning and activities. Perhaps, most significantly, meetings can be commitment-generating experiences among team members for the implementation of team decisions and the realization of team goals. Meetings can also provide a forum for conflict raising and problem solving and can be used to draw out and coordinate the variety of opinions and resources in the team.

The three most important aspects of effective team meetings are: (1) setting up the agenda, (2) encouraging participation, and (3) guiding the debriefing.

<u>Setting up the agenda</u>. Prior to the meeting the convener should initiate a process for setting up the agenda. Most team meetings involve discussion of several items or topics that differ in four important ways and the convener should have these in mind when helping the team to generate the agenda. The four important aspects of the agenda are: (1) the importance or urgency of the items, (2) the extent to which the items pertain to some team members and not to others, (3) the amount of time needed to discuss the item, and (4) the type of action required from team members concerning the items. For example some items may require merely an exchange of information, while others may require consensus decision-making or considerable joint planning.

The convener can facilitate an effective team meeting by taking these four dimensions into consideration while setting up the agenda. The following steps make use of these four dimensions and allow all team members to participate in building the agenda.

(1) Posting the agenda. The convener has an agenda posted in a central location so that team members can write down items of importance to them prior to the meeting. The convener brings this agenda to the meeting.

(2) Starting the meeting. At the start of the meeting, the convener asks each team member to think of any items that may be of importance for group discussion. These items are added to the agenda. Next, the convener makes sure that all members understand each item. Then the items are placed into clusters -- if they can be grouped together -- so that several items can be discussed under the same agenda item.

(3) Ordering the agenda. The convener selects an order for the items which is based on the importance and urgency of the items. The convener asks team members which items seem most important to them. Items that only are relevant to two or three team members are left for the last part of the meeting in case some team members are required to leave the meeting early.

(4) Proceeding through the agenda. The convener calls upon each team member who suggested the item to take the lead during that part of the meeting. The convener watches the time to assure that the team stays on schedule.

The written agenda that was posted prior to the meeting can be prepared using the following format:

Item	Person Presenting	Type of Item	Time Required
Using parents as teaching aides	Dave	Decision-Making	15 minutes
Lunch schedule modifications	Sally	Information	2 minutes
New workbooks	Sara	Information	3 minutes
Mini-course problems	Bob	Problem-Solving	20 minutes
Parents/teachers party	Sally	Information	2 minutes

This agenda is brought to the meeting by the convener and the steps described above are followed.

Encouraging participation. During the meeting, the convener acts as the discussion leader. The main tasks of the convener are to facilitate participation in the discussion and to monitor the flow of the meeting. The convener should certainly not dominate the meeting, yet, at times, he or she must be forceful and definite. The convener is concerned with the team's accomplishing tasks and is also concerned with how the members work together to accomplish the tasks. It is the convener's main job to steer the meeting away from task issues and on to interpersonal or social-emotional issues when he or she believes that the latter processes are interfering with the former ones.

The convener is concerned that all team members participate in the discussion and the decision making. The convener paraphrases and summarizes to ensure clarity and asks for surveys to be taken to facilitate open participation and consensus decision making. Although the convener has a great deal of potential influence on the course the meeting takes, he or she must be open to opinions and views which are different. The convener strives to keep in touch with the emotional tone of the team, tries to clarify when he or she suspects that there is some confusion, checks for satisfaction of members with their participation, and watches to make sure that the meeting is progressing according to schedule.

On many educational teams, the department head, the principal, or the head teacher naturally perform some of the convening functions. We believe, however, that a convener should be appointed from the membership to perform discussion-leader functions. Our experience has shown that an effective way of sharing discussion-leader responsibilities among the team members is to rotate the role of convener among them.

Before the meeting begins, the member who is appointed convener reviews the agenda, carries the posted agenda to the meeting room, and appoints another team member to take minutes. The convener calls the meeting to order, leads the team to establish priorities in the agenda, keeps the team on tasks, monitors its time agreements for each item, and remains attuned to feelings of confusion, attempting to clarify matters by paraphrasing and summarizing. At the end of each item, the convener checks to be sure that everyone who wanted to contribute to the discussion had a chance to do so and makes sure that someone on the team summarizes to make sure the secretary has prepared accurate minutes. On a planned basis, the convener conducts a "process debriefing" (described below), checks with the secretary to see that he or she is clear about the minutes, and transfer left-over agenda to the agenda sheets for the next meeting.

A primary key to effective meetings is the ease with which the team members freely contribute to the problem solving and decision making. Free and forthright participation requires a climate of trust and openness on the team, in which all team members can feel that their opinions and perceptions are worthwhile and valued by the other team members. There are several procedures that can be useful for encouraging participation. Along with the communication skills described previously the following activities can be tried to encourage wide participation on the team.

(1) The chance to listen. This procedure ensures that communicatio will be understood. During critical periods of the meeting or at times when there seems to be some misunderstanding, the members of the team are asked to paraphrase the person who just finished speaking before they are allowed to state their own view. Moreover, before any decision is reached, several team members should paraphrase the proposal that the group is deciding upon.

(2) Time tokens. This procedure can be used to even out team participation in instances where some team members dominate while most others barely contribute at all. The same number of tokens are distributed to each team member. Each token is redeemable for a specific amount of discussion time, say 30 seconds. Every time team members participate in the discussion, they use up some of their tokens. When members run out of tokens, they can say nothing unless other team members are willing to give them some of their tokens. This allows the team to decide to give an exceptional contributor a greater share of the "air time."

(3) Buzz groups. This procedure allows smaller groups of team members to discuss an issue. The meeting is interrupted briefly, and members form either triads or quadrads and exchange views. This is particularly useful if some team members hold a minority view that they are hesitant to bring out in the larger group, or in the presence of the team leader or principal. At the end of the discussion, reporters from each small group are asked to summarize the views that were expressed in their group.

Guiding the debriefing. The convener should be watching what is happening both with regard to work and to the social emotional processes during meetings. It is important for the convener to take "process checks" whenever they seem appropriate, especially regarding satisfaction of group members with their participation and the decision-making that is being done. During either the middle part of the meeting or the last 10 minutes of the meeting (or both) the team should discuss answers to the following sorts of questions: Did we accomplish our goals for the meeting? Did we use our resources and individual strengths effectively? Or, did we avoid pitfalls such as wasting time?, etc. While the team is trying to answer such questions we describe the discussions as a "debriefing."

The convener will find it useful to have some group-process concepts in mind to guide debriefings. An important aspect of team process is the [illegible] with which the functions and roles that we described before as work and social-emotional all fit together as the team progresses during its meeting. The total team process consists of a gestalt that encompasses both work and social emotional functions and in some way allows for and copes with individual differences of the team members. In this sense, the team's process consists of a balance among all these functions varying with the needs of team at any given time and the demands imposed by the external and internal pressures on the team. There are several questions that can be helpful for the convener to keep in mind in relation to these team processes and debriefing.

(1) What is the pace of the team? Are we slowing down or moving ahead? Do we feel satisfied with the ground we are covering?

(2) Are we expressing our dissatisfactions directly? Do team members have uncomfortable feelings about the way we are doing things? Are they being expressed?

(3) What does our participation look like? Who is particip-ting and who is not participating? Where do the team members who are participating least, stand on the issues? Are we hearing everyone's views?

(4) Are we helping each other (clarifying, supporting, giving information, paraphrasing, summarizing, encouraging, etc.) or are we arguing each other down? Are we listening to each other?

(5) Are we engaging in any self-oriented behaviors like plopping, sandbagging, working hidden agendas, etc.?

In addition to key concepts for debriefing, the convener should also have a repertoire of questionnaire items that can be employed to facilitate debriefing. The following kinds of questionnaires can be useful:

(1) <u>The Short Survey</u>. The following few items can be used for launching debriefing discussions:

Others pay attention to what I have to say	___/___/___/___/___/	Others tend to ignore what I say
Team members are at odds with one another	___/___/___/___/___/	Team members are working together quite well
I have participated often	___/___/___/___/___/	I have participated very little

Members are encouraged to give behavior descriptions and their own feelings in relation to each of these items.

(2) Group Climate. The following questions adapted from Bradford, Stock, and Horevitz (1961) can be used for reporting team members reactions to meetings. Each team member is asked to complete the scales and a general picture can be calculated for the team as a whole.

What was the general atmosphere in the group? Check a place on each scale.

Formal	:____:____:____:____:	Informal
Competitive	:____:____:____:____:	Cooperative
Hostile	:____:____:____:____:	Supportive
Controlled	:____:____:____:____:	Permissive
Warm	:____:____:____:____:	Cold

What was the quality of the work accomplished? Check a place on each scale.

Quality of Production:	High	:____:____:____:____:____:	Low
Satisfaction of Group Members:	High	:____:____:____:____:____:	Low
Goals of Group:	Clear	:____:____:____:____:____:	Vague
Coordination of Group's Efforts:	Clearly Organized	:____:____:____:____:____:	Vaguely or poorly organized
Methods, Procedural Rules:	Flexible	:____:____:____:____:____:	Inflexible

(3) A Check on Participation. The following scales are helpful in generating information about the frequency and quality of participation in the meeting:

(A) How did you feel about your participation during this meeting? (Check a place)

Very Satisfied	Quite Satisfied	Some What Satisfied	Some What Dissatisfied	Quite Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

(B) Check a place on each scale that shows how you think others participated.

All people talked : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : Only a few talked

All members involved : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : Members apathetic

(C) Check the place on each scale that shows how you think participation was received by the group.

Other members really considered my input : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : Other members ignored my input

The team really considered other members' input : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : The team ignored other members' input

(4) Rewards and costs. The following two scales are useful for getting some quick feedback about the overall value and impact of a particular meeting.

(A) HOW VALUABLE FOR YOU WAS THIS SESSION? Was it worth the time and effort? Did you receive new information, new understandings, new insights, or new questions that you consider important, valuable, helpful? (Circle one number on this scale below.)

9 - - 8 - - - 7 - - - 6 - - - - 5 - - - - 4 - - - - 3 - - 2 - - - - 1 - - - - 0

Extremely Valuable — Very Valuable — Moderately Valuable — Mildly Valuable — Almost Complete Waste of Time

(B) AT THE PRESENT TIME HOW STRONG ARE YOUR NEGATIVE FEELINGS, RESERVATIONS, OR MISGIVINGS ABOUT OTHER MEMBERS OF THE GROUP AS A RESULT OF THIS MEETING?

In answering this question, please ignore your answer to the first question. Both ratings could be high, both could be low, or one could be high and the other low. The first question refers to the value from the session; the second asks about the costs. (Circle one number on the scale below.)

9 - - - - 8 - - - - 7 - - - - 6 - - - 5 - - - 4 - - 3 - - 2 - - 1 - - - - 0

Extremely Strong	Very Strong	Strong	Moderate	Mild	No Negative Feelings

(5) <u>Post-meeting reaction sheet</u>. This sheet was adopted from Roselie Howard, an organizational development consultant with Smith, Murray, and Howard, Inc.

Please mark an X before each item in the box that best shows your reaction to this meeting.

AGREEMENT		DISAGREEMENT		
Strong YES	Mild yes	Mild no	Strong NO	
( )	( )	( )	( )	A. The results of this meeting were worth the time.
( )	( )	( )	( )	B. I was given adequate opportunity to state my beliefs about subjects discussed by the group.
( )	( )	( )	( )	C. Our meeting was efficient.

AGREEMENT		DISSAGREEMENT		
Strong YES	Mild yes	Mild no	Strong NO	
( )	( )	( )	( )	D. I am satisfied with the attention and consideration that others gave to my ideas and opinions.
( )	( )	( )	( )	E. We wasted too much time in this meeting.
( )	( )	( )	( )	F. The group effectively used my knowledge of the subjects discussed.
( )	( )	( )	( )	G. The most important topics were never discussed.
( )	( )	( )	( )	H. I had adequate opportunity to influence our conclusions and decisions.

Periodic major debriefings. For an educational team to remain strong and viable, it should retreat periodically from the daily work to look at how well it is doing. These major debriefings can be times at which data collected on forms such as those presented above can be fed back and discussed. Team members can use these periodic opportunities to renew trust and openness, to socialize informally with one another, and to reestablish the social-emotional commitments that team members hold for one another. Such sessions may also be appropriate occasions for bringing in outside consultants to facilitate team-building efforts.

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 5)

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This is a comprehensive package designed to train groups of educators in communication, interpersonal and group process skills. The package consists of a step-by-step program which includes the use of films.

Pfeiffer, J.W. and J.E. Jones. A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. Iowa City: University Associates Press, 1969-74, four volumes.

A collection of exercises, procedures, etc., for use in various phases of work with groups and for various purposes. Most describe goals (possible purposes for use), group size, time required, materials needed, physical setting, process, and variations. An occasional series.

Schmuck, R.A. Developing Collaborative Decision Making: The Importance of Trusting, Strong, and Skillful Leaders. Educational Technology,

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Administrators at the top of a school district's hierarchy often are considered to be the primary wielders of power, with teachers and students possessing decreasing amounts of power to determine what takes place in their schools. But many districts exist for which this picture is oversimplified. In particular, there are some districts in which much of the power thought to be traditionally held by the central office administrators is shared with principals, teachers, and students. Although teamwork does not develop easily, school district groups, building faculties, and classroom groups can be trained to make collaborative decisions efficiently, without the necessity for external pressure or surveillance.

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The authors propose that a principal, instead of making all decisions himself, should convene faculty, staff, and student groups to help bring conflict into the open and to work on organizational problems systematically. This "team leader" role assumes that team members are intelligent, competent, and want to perform well; and that an open organizational climate with high trust and esprit facilitates group problem-solving procedures.

Schmuck, R.A. and P.J. Runkel. Improving staff meetings. A cassette tape, order number A-200, issued by the University Council for Educational Administration, available from UCEA, Attn: B. Finkelman, 29 West Woodruff, Columbus, Ohio, 43210, 1972.

A few basic ideas for the principal or other school leader on conducting meetings.

Chapter 6

Using Outside Consultants for Team Building

While the team members themselves can use many productive methods to achieve team effectiveness, there are occasions when inviting outside consultants to participate in team meetings can be useful, even necessary, for team building. For example, we already have pointed to the importance of debriefing for team effectiveness. But debriefing for only a few minutes at team meetings is not enough to assure continual team effectiveness. Periodic major debriefing sessions -- in the form of a one-, two-, or three-day retreat in a setting away from the work-a-day environment -- should also occur. The value of these more substantial sessions can be greatly increased with the aid of an outside consultant, <u>if</u> the appropriate consultant is chosen and used in a way that is congruent with the needs of the team.

There are several different types of team-building experiences and some may be appropriate for a particular educational team while others may not. In this chapter, we discuss the sorts of issues team members should consider when calling on the services of an outside consultant.

<u>Why Call Upon Outside Consultants?</u>

Outside consultants can bring several benefits to the educational team. First and foremost, they bring with them a fresh view of things. Unlike team members, they are not part of the formal structure of the team and their vision of the way things could be are not limited in ways that team members' views get to be after working together over a period of time. They have the advantage of being objective since they have little, if any, investment in the outcome of decisions that affect team members. Furthermore, using outside consultants can free the convener and other team members from the responsibility of leading the discussion, allowing them to concentrate attention more fully on the team-building experience. Finally, astute outsiders can bring with them a wealth of expertise, knowledge and experience about team processes, interpersonal communications, and in particular, methods of problem solving and decision making. They can act as teachers, educating team members in more effective group procedures.

There are a variety of reasons for an educational team to call upon the services of an outside consultant. The most straight forward need for an outside consultant arises from the desire of team members to improve their skills in a particular area of team functioning. Team members may desire, for example, to improve their skills of communicating, goal setting, problem solving, decision making, convening, or debriefing. In such cases, the team may engage outside consultants to provide training in these areas. We refer to this type of team building as "training," and will describe it in more detail when we discuss the various types of consultative designs below.

Besides coordinating ~~the~~ training of a team in basic skills, outside consultants can be periodically called in for a team "tune-up." As with automobiles, these periodic retreats serve a preventive function by providing an opportunity for review and self-renewal among team members. At these retreats, the consultants can use many methods to help team members focus on their group processes, identify "problem" areas, and introduce strategies for solving them. This type of team-building experience is particularly important in the early stages of the life of a team, or when new members join the team. At these juncture points in team development, issues of authority, responsibility, role clarity and goal clarity tend to be salient, as are the basic issues of interpersonal communication and presence or absence of trust and openness. Educational teams typically find it useful to schedule team-building retreats at the start of the school year, allowing for team reintegration, planning, the incorporation of individual members' goals into team goals, and the renewal and renegotiation of commitments and group agreements.

In addition to the periodic team "tune-up," there are various conditions that may develop within the team that call for the help of an outsider. One of these is the existence of prolonged interpersonal conflict as, for example, when there are overt clashes in which team members act angrily and hostiley with one another, or in the splitting of the team into factions or cliques that function at odds with one another. Conflict may also be present when team members frequently act and feel attacked or defensive with one another. Sometimes conflict on educational teams results in the psychological withdrawal of one or more team members or results in some team members refusing to work together or talk with one another. A team-building retreat is certainly appropriate when team members are frequently expressing negative feelings about one another privately, and in subgroups.

Breakdowns in team cohesiveness also indicate the need for a team-building retreat. One indicator of a lack of cohesiveness is team members feeling isloated from the rest of the team. Another is when several team members are leaving or attempting to leave the team. The existence of heterogeneous cultural backgrounds among team members may contribute to a breakdown in team cohesiveness, as can the demands of a task which requires some members to work separately for long periods of time. Excessive lateness or absence can also be a signal of weakened team cohesiveness.

A lessening of team productivity is, of course, another indicator that a team-building retreat is warranted. The inability of the team to reach decisions on important issues is one important indicator of low productivity. Another is the failure of team members to implement decisions once they are made. The general sense among the members that very little seems to get accomplished when the team meets or a feeling among team members that they are being overwhelmed by one crises after another are other signals that a team-building retreat is overdue.

Team roles, particularly leadership roles, can be an area that warrants the attention of an outside consultant. Difficulties with roles are shown when members feel unclear about their own or other's roles. Sometimes, while roles may be clear enough, some team members may be unsatisfied with them and may want to negotiate new roles in the team. At times, team members' roles can be designed in ways thet interfere with the work of other team members. This is often experienced as "people getting in one another's way." Leadership poses more specialized role problems, because the convener's behaviors tend to be more important to most team members than any other single member's behavior. There may be problems if the convener's style clashes with the expectations of the team's membership. It is not uncommon for team members to feel a lack of sufficient feedback from the team leader, or, perhaps, that the leader does not represent them well when performing his or her "linking" role. Taking on team leadership by a new individual may create some difficulty for the team and the new leader as well.

team members may tend to create artificial subgroups and may tend to strengthen feelings of isolation among some members. In addition, it sometimes is beneficial to include people other than the team members during at least part of the retreat, especially if they are highly interdependent with the team, or if they are likely to be strongly affected by actions decided upon during the retreat. As such, it may be useful at times to include the principal or other administrators or specialized resource teachers and student personnel such as counselors and school psychologists who are not directly part of the team.

Another important issue that arises at this time is the selection of appropriate and competent consultants. This is an important consideration because there are a plethora of individuals nowadays calling themselves organizational or group consultants whose competence may be questionable. Thus, it is difficult to ensure the quality of a particular consultant's competence. If ever the phrase "let the buyer beware" were appropriate, it is certainly true in this instance. The safest approach is to engage consultants, known to some team members as effective. If this is not possible, and the team is considering engaging consultants about whom they have no information, do not hesitate to request references of persons with whom the consultants have worked, and to follow-up with an inquiry about the consultant's effectiveness.

Aspects of consultative designs.

While several different types of basic consultative designs are available to educational teams, there are certain features that are common to all team-building efforts. Typically, the team-building consultation begins with a diagnostic period, during which the consultants gather information about the team enabling them to put together an appropriate design

These examples describe some of the conditions that tend to warrant the attention of outside consultation at a team-building retreat. By no means do they constitute an exhaustive list. They do, however, represent some very important types of "pain" experienced by educational teams that have motivated them to seek outside help.

Initiating the team-building retreat.

The suggestion to initiate a team-building retreat may come from the team's convener or any other team member who perceives the need. At times the suggestion may come from an outside source such as the school's principal, a central-office district administrator or a member of the school board. In any case, the suggestion should be brought before the team for discussion prior to any action taken by individual members to initiate the retreat. The most successful team-building retreats are those which enjoy the support and enthusiasm of all the members of the team.

A discussion about a possible team-building retreat should include sharing perceptions among team members about the need for a team-building experience, and what each of the members hopes to gain from a retreat. It may be helpful as well if team members share some of their concerns, reservations, and anxieties about a team-building retreat and are clear about what they do not want to happen there. Such a discussion should help team members to articulate mutually agreed upon goals for a retreat, goals with which all are relatively comfortable.

One issue that tends to arise during the early stages of deciding on a team-building retreat is who should be included. In our experience, the most successful retreats are those which include the entire educational team, including the secretarial and support staff. Excluding any of the for a retreat or for working with the team in its actual work setting. It is important to bear in mind that during this diagnostic period team members also have the opportunity to find out about the consultants. We highly recommend that team members use the diagnostic period to exercise critical judgment in deciding whether a particular consultant or team of consultants are appropriate for the team's needs.

The initial stages of diagnosis usually begin with a meeting involving the team members and the outside consultant. At this meeting the team members have the opportunity to share their opinions and perceptions about the need for a team-building retreat, as well as their hopes and expectations for the eventual outcomes of the consultant's efforts. Team members question the consultants about their philosophy and methods. This initial meeting should result in an oral contract between the team and the consultants about the goals and procedures of the entire team-building design and an agreement to allow the consultant to engage in further diagnosis.

There are several methods that the consultant might employ in diagnosing the team's group processes. A costly, but thorough method is that of interviewing each of the team members individually. Sometimes, a sufficient diagnosis might be obtained by interviewing several key members, or by interviewing team members together in a group. A less costly method for gathering specific information is the use of questionnaires or instruments similar to those presented on meeting effectiveness in Chapter 6. A number of such instruments are presented in Diagnosing Professional Climates in Schools by Fox et al. (see annotated reference at end of this chapter). There are also less formal methods of diagnosis that may be used by the consultants. These include asking team members to draw or construct abstract representations of team functioning or even physical sociograms of the team structure using the team members themselves.

Following the diagnostic phase, the consultants will use the information they gathered to design a team-building retreat. The retreat itself will most likely be directed toward improving the work and social-emotional processes discussed in Chapter 3. As such the team-building activities may focus on such work issues as team goals, members' roles and responsibilities, methods for problem solving and decision making, and some of the techniques being used to run team meetings. On the social-emotional side, the focus of a retreat could be on resolving interpersonal conflicts, increasing the amounts of trust and openness on the team, or on building an increased sense of team purpose and cohesiveness. While most team-building retreats will include aspects of both work and social-emotional processes, they will also tend to emphasize one over the other. Team members should take an active role in determining where they want that emphasis to be.

While team-building retreats tend to differ with respect to type and focus, they all eventually lead to some realistic problem solving on the part of team members. Here the consultants help team members to identify specific high-priority problems, generate solutions in the form of plans for action, make decisions on a particular course of action, implement those decisions, and establish a process whereby the team can monitor its progress toward its goals. Typically, much of this problem solving is carried out after the retreat in the context of the work-a-day world of the team.

Types of team-building designs.

We have found it useful in our consultation with educational teams to conceptualize four different types of team-building designs; (1) *training*, (2) *process observation and feedback*, (3) data feedback, and (4) confrontation. While most team building retreats tend to combine various aspects of each of these four types, any particular retreat will generally emphasize one or another of them, as each tends to respond to somewhat different team circumstances.

. Training. Effective team functioning is based on a variety of interpersonal skills that are facilitative of the team's work and social-emotional processes. Such skills include the team's ability to communicate clearly, to observe the group processes, to conduct effective meetings, to engage in collaborative problem solving and decision making, to establish and clarify goals, and to manage team conflict. Training experiences can be designed to teach these skills to the team as a whole and help team members apply them in their work. They are generally characterized by four basic elements: education, skill learning, exercises, and procedures.

Education refers to the presentation of conceptual materials to team members to improve their ability to understand how groups and organizations function. The consultant will help team members develop a conceptual map of healthy and effective team functioning and will provide the conceptual tools to enable team members to take a critical look at their own team. Depending upon the team's circumstances, such conceptual material might include relevant theories of interpersonal relations, concepts from theories of group and intergroup relations, models of leadership and collaborative decision making, or theories of conflict.

Skills are those behaviors which can improve the competency and effectiveness of the team as it works together. Generally, these skills include anything from speaking clearly to setting priorities systematically. The kinds of skills typ.ally included in training designs are communication skills, i.e., paraphrasing, describing behavior, impression checking, and describing one's own feeling, skills for conducting meetings, and skills for collecting data about the team. These skills are put to work in reciprocal relations between persons; individuals do not make use of these skills in isolation. Each skill is actually one person's part of a reciprocal role-relation. Paraphrasing for example, can only be done in conversation with at least one other person and is not a complete act until the other has verified the accuracy of the paraphrase. The skill of a team, consequently, is often suprisingly independent of the skill of the individuals composing it. For this reason, training in group skills is designed as training for the team as a whole.

Exercises are structured game-like activities designed for the practice of skills, and to increase the awareness of interpersonal and group processes. Typically, exercises are simulated situations and problems which are designed to bring out processes going on within the team. Each exercise is designed to focus on a particular dimension of team life. As such, there are exercises which simulate communication patterns, decision making, problem solving, and so on.

Each exercise is designed to produce a specifiable learning experience. The learning that occurs through exercises is based on the conception that an awareness of interpersonal and group processes, and the subsequent integration of relevant skills is best facilitated through a combination of experiential and cognitive learning. The exercises allow team members to try out and experience new ways of doing things in a relatively anxiety-free context, unrelated to the content of the day-to-day work of the team. In one exercise, for example, team members are given the opportunity to observe their decision-making processes without much investment in the content of the decision.

Ultimately, however, the primary aim of the exercises is the transfer of the learning to the real, day-to-day work of the team. To accomplish this, team members must apply what they have observed and discovered in the exercise to their work-a-day functioning. Debriefing the exercise helps the team make this transfer. Following the exercise, time is set aside for team members to examine the consequences of their behavior and to discuss the effects and advantages of one behavior as opposed to another. During such a debriefing, team members consider how their behaviors were similar or dissimilar to their typical team behavior and by asking how they would apply what they have learned to their actual back home work as a team. Group processes for which simulated exercises have been developed include decision making, interpersonal trust, giving and receiving feedback, problem solving, conflict resolution, collaboration versus competition, confrontation, and influence. These are described in detail in the Handbook of Organization Development in Schools (annotated at the end of this chapter).

A procedure is an interpersonal form for communication and work in a team without any particular content in itself. Procedures often overlap with skills and many of the skills mentioned above can be designated as a procedure. One example of a procedure is voting, another example is a systematic sequence for solving problems. Procedures are introduced with the puspose of moving the team along toward its goal. Being content free, they adapt to the content of the team's task and do not intrude upon the team's normal work. There are procedures for clarifying communication, giving and receiving feedback, decision making, problem solving, conflict management, role clarification, and other areas of team interaction. The problem-solving sequence described in Chapter 5 is an example of a team procedure.

Training experiences are particularly appropriate for teams whose members wish to upgrade their skill for working together. Often they are used to upgrade specific team skills prior to the introduction of other types of team building designs. We have found the other types of team building to be most effective when a certain level of skill already exists in the team. They can be useful too for newly formed teams in providing a model for highly effective functioning right from the start.

Process observation and feedback. In process observation and feedback, the consultant focuses on the specific ways in which team members work with one another on their actual tasks. At a team-building retreat, the team is invited to work on one of its real problems and to act just as they would back home. The consultant may also sit in on a team meeting, and in some cases, will offer individual consultation of a single team member. The latter is most often done with the team leader.

As the consultants observe the team at work, they are particularly concerned with how the team is functioning on their work and social-emotional processes. Specifically, they are concerned with communication patterns, group norms, formal and informal roles, leadership styles, decision-making and problem-solving procedures, and how the team handles conflict. They may simply just observe these processes or collect more formalized data on them as team members interact. In any case, as the consultants observe this behavior, they are concerned with the question, "How is this behavior related to the team's effectiveness and to the satisfactions of team members?" Later, the consultants offer feedback about what they have observed.

Often process observation and feedback is used when team members are experiencing a particular problem. For example, in a management team, the members may find that "decisions get made but never seem to get implemented." The consultants observing a discussion leading up to decision making, may note that only the superintendent and two or three assistants actually took part in the discussion, while others remained silent. The consultants may begin to speculate that the conditions of low participation in predecision-making discussions may be related to the lack of implementation. Perhaps, this low participation reflects a lack of commitment or feelings of apathy with regard to the decision. This last speculation, of course, is an impression about the attitudes and feelings of the silent team members. The consultants will check out these kinds of impressions. In doing such checking, the consultants might describe the behaviors that they are observing, and present some data about their observations to the team, e.g., they may report the number of times that each member spoke throughout the discussion. Sometimes, the mere description of the team's behavior will suffice to open discussion of the topic and get to the root of the matter. At other times, the consultants may state the impressions that they are formulating about the team. They may wonder if the low participation reflects a low sense of commitment to the decision and check this out with the team members. The consultants may also more actively intervene in ways designed to increase the participation of silent members, e.g., introduring a survey in which all members are asked for their viess on the decision.

Our example of the management team that lacks follow through on decisions illustrates a key feature of process observation and feedback. Specifically, it is moving the team's attention away from the convening problem and focusing in on emerging problems. In our example, the convening problem was "a lack of implementation of the team's decisions." With the consultants' help, a new problem such as low participation among team members and lack of commitment to the decision, emerges as a focus for the team's attention. By presenting observations and impressions to the team the consultants transform emerging problems into convening ones and, thus, facilitate relevant problem solving for the team.

Data feedback. In data feedback, the consultants make direct use of the information they obtained during their diagnosis. Generally, after collecting diagnostic data, the consultants put it together in a way that reveals areas of concern and the perceptions and feelings of the majority of team members. At the retreat this information is presented to the team and the various topics are opened for clarification and problem solving. The consultants will generally convene this discussion, encouraging frank, open responses among team members. The consultants will also help clarify communication and summarize the major issue and views.

The goal of the data feedback discussion is the identification of high priority problems. The consultants orient the team members towards clarifying the problem areas that emerge from the discussion, while helping them to frame the problems in ways that will facilitate problem solving. Finally, the consultants guide the team members through a problem solving process with regard to those problems that team members have identified.

Confrontation. A confrontation design is most appropriate with teams experiencing conflict between some of the members or when one team is experiencing conflict with another team. Consultants help the conflicting parties to engage one another directly and to focus on the conflict in a problem solving manner. The goals of the confrontation are to clarify the parameters of the conflict, clarify its source, and begin planning for ways to manage or resolve the differences.

Confrontation strategies can be applied to individuals in conflict and to groups in conflict. In either case, the consultants encourage both parties to share their perceptions, impressions, fears, opinions, and concerns about each other and thereby attempt to help clarify the behavioral, and situational bases for the conflict. Some hoped for outcomes of this kind of consultation are that discrepancies between team members' intentions and behavior will be clarified, that any miscommunication will be brought out into the open and clarified, that conflicts arising from situations which are no longer in existence will be settled, that conflict arising from conflictual role definitions may lead to role change, that agreements may be reached on how to conduct the conflict in less destructive ways, and that interpersonal trust will begin to develop.

A Case Study in Consultation for Team Building

The case study presented here reflects a synthesis of the four team building designs just discussed.

The educational team consisted of the staff of a small school which functioned as a treatment center for emotionally disturbed children. The staff consisted of a director, a counselor, a psychologist, a secretary, a coordinator, four teachers, and two teacher aides, making 11 members in all. They constituted a closely knit group which had worked together as a staff for the previous three years. They had had no previous experience with an outside consultant at all, nor had they ever deliberately worked on team building on their own.

It was the psychologist who made the initial suggestions for a planned team-building effort. She had some knowledge and exposure to consultation for organization development and had been the only team member who pressed for a team-building retreat the previous year. Her role and orientation also differed considerably from those of the other team members and she had a different and, perhaps, more "distant" perspective on some of the issues with which the teaching staff was struggling. After discussion with the staff, she was asked to make initial contact with some consultants.

At the initial meeting of the psychologist and the consultants, the psychologist described the team matters that need some attention: (1) a new role, that of "coordinator" had been created within the team because of a recent acquisition of new funds. There was a lack of clarity and some disagreement among staff members about exactly what this new role would entail. There were, also, some negative feelings about the ex-teacher who was chosen to take the role. (2) Several of the staff were both unclear about and dissatisfied with the way in which the counselor was doing his job. They thought that he was not doing his job competently and thoroughly enough. (3) There was a general "lack of communication" among the staff. Specifically, team members had feelings and opinions about one another's behavior that were not being communicated clearly and directly.

Following this initial contact, the consultants met with the director of the team. Their main objective was to ascertain the director's goals for the retreat. They asked her what it was that she hoped would be accomplished and two general areas emerged from her reply: (1) several of the staff's roles needed clarification, and (2) staff members needed to be more direct with one another.

The director seemed more certain of her first objective compared to the second one. While she stated clearly that she thought the staff needed to focus on its interpersonal communications, she seemed slightly uncomfortable with the prospect of either focusing too much on staff relationships or of creating a threatening and uncomfortable situation in the team.

The consultants thought the director had difficulty in giving them a clear idea of the degree to which she felt it was important to focus on interpersonal communication. They commented on this to the director and she replied that she was a little concerned that some staff members would not want to "go as far" as others in this area. The consultants thought that probably the best design would be to begin by focusing on the issues of role clarity and then move toward improving interpersonal communication as the need arose and after some of the work issues had been clarified. They also thought that it would be important to meet all the team members to discuss their goals for the team-building retreat. They shared these thoughts with the director and she agreed.

The consultants joined the staff a week later at a regular staff meeting. At the outset they told the team that they had interviewed the psychologist and the director and that they had been forming some initial impressions about topics that would need the team's attention during an forthcoming two-day retreat. They also had some preliminary ideas on how to go about covering these various topics. They did, however, want to meet the staff and gather more information about their observations and impressions. They asked the team members to consider what goals and expectations they would have for the retreat, and what, if any, reservations they were experiencing.

The team members' responses tended to support the data that had already been collected. All team members agreed that there was a need for some work on "staff communication." Then, the director asked of any team-members were hesitant about expressing feelings directly to one another. While most team members agreed that focusing on interpersonal relations was somewhat "scary," they felt a need to do so, and expressed a desire to move in that direction. Most team members agreed that the newly created "coordinator" role was in need of clarification. Some lack of clarity concerning the counselor's role was also expressed. The consultants shared their ideas about beginning with role clarification and then moving toward staff communication as the need presented itself. The staff responded favorably to this design.

At the close of this session with the entire team, the consultants stated that they had a general idea of some of the areas that the team considered important. They now needed to have more specific information about these areas in order to prepare a detailed design and agenda for the retreat. They asked the team members to complete and return the following questionnaire, explaining that the information received would be confidential and would only be presented back to the team in the form of general anonymous feedback:

> In thinking about next week's retreat, make a list of those issues that you feel need our attention. Identify areas of ambiguity, e.g., an unclarity of someone's role or organizational policy, or areas around which there is conflict (overt or covert), or topics that need to have decisions made about them. Next to each area (in the appropriate space) list those persons whom you see as most centrally involved in the issue, and any opinions or perceptions that you may have concerning the nature of the issue, e.g., its causes, how to solve it, or what the issue "really" is, etc. Please, list the issues in order of importance:

Issues	Persons Involved	Your Perceptions

The two-day team-building retreat was held a week later at a resort area about three hours away from the school. The staff had gone through a considerable amount of planning on the housekeeping details of the retreat. The director and one of the staff members had drawn up a rough schedule of the two days allowing time for both work and play. The staff left the school at 9:00 a.m. and after a pleasant ride over the mountains, arrived at their destination at 12:00 noon. After an hour of settling in and eating a light lunch, the team building retreat was launched.

Using the information collected from the above questionnaire, the consultants had identified five areas that would comprise the agenda for the two-day team building retreat. They were: (1) the coordinator's role, (2) the counselor's role, (3) staff/child relationships, (4) staff communication, and (5) other issues. Specific statements were formulated for each of these issues, and these were written on newsprint under each of the five headings.

The meeting began with the consultants briefly reviewing the agenda. After a brief discussion, the consultants suggested some priorities for how the items on the agenda would be handled. The work issues would be handled first, and "staff communication" would be dealt with once some progress had been made in the other areas. The "role of the coordinator" seemed to have highest priority and it would be dealt with first. A considerable amount of time would be set aside for "staff communication," even if it meant only briefly touching on some of the other items. The staff agreed with the consultants' suggestions.

The first item on the agenda, the "role of the coordinator," was introduced as the consultants posted the statements they had generalized from the data. They were as follows:

The Coordinator's Role

1. This role affects all of the staff members in some way.
2. There is some unclarity about exactly what the role will be.
3. There is disagreement between the director and the teaching staff about what the role should be. The director wants the role to include "supervision" of teachers. The teachers do not want it to include "supervision."
4. It is unclear what "supervision" actually means. It needs to be clarified and defined.
5. Some feel that part of the conflict over the role stems from feelings about the new coordinator's working style and the fact that she had previously been one of the teachers.
6. Some think that the director, not the new coordinator, should be responsible for "supervision."

The consultants then reviewed each of the statements, checking to see that they were clear and understood by all. Next, the consultants surveyed the team for their reaction to the data. Each team member was asked to state briefly "where they were" on each of the statements. Were they not aware of any particular point? Did they agree or disagree with the statement? Did they have any other comments to add? The director began by stating that while she had been aware that there was some ambiguity over the coordinator role, she had not been aware that the staff had such strong convictions about the "supervision" issue as the data seemed to indicate. Following her statement, the teachers, one by one, confirmed the fact that indeed such strong feelings did exist. For her part, the coordinator was aligned with the teachers on the "supervision" issue. She also expressed some feelings of stress about being "in the middle" between the teachers and the director. What emerged from this initial part of the data feedback was everyone agreeing that what was meant by "supervision" needed to be clarified.

After clarifying this point, the consultants divided the staff into three groups: (1) the teachers and the aides; (2) the director and the counselor; and (3) the new coordinator and the psychologist. The counselor and the psychologist were encouraged to help the coordinator and the director clarify and verbalize their views. The groups were instructed to form two lists based on their view of what the role of the coordinator would be like. The first was a list of specific tasks which the coordinator would do and the second was a list of tasks that she would not do. Each group was asked to rank order the items on its lists according to priority.

As the groups began there was some hesitancy and a reluctance to state clearly and behaviorally exactly what the coordinator would be doing.

The initial statements were vague and abstract, e.g., "The coordinator would be responsible for monitoring case progress." The consultants pushed the group members for specificity: "What kinds of things would she be doing if she were 'responsible for monitoring'?" "Are there things that you would expect that she would not be doing?" It seemed to the consultants as if the staff members needed "permission" to express their differing positions openly and clearly. Increasingly, the statements became more and more specific. After 45 minutes the groups were asked to rejoin in the main room and to post their lists for the others to view.

After a short break for coffee, a representative from each of the groups presenced the lists to the rest of the team clarifying any area of ambiguity and confusion. The teachers' lists were presented first, followed by the director's, and finally, the coordinator's list was presented.

Some specific differences in role definition and priorities began to emerge between the groups. The teachers viewed the primary task of the coordinator as training and consultation with parents. This would relieve them of this responsibility, freeing them to focus on curriculum planning for the children. Secondly, the teachers saw the coordinator as a "resource person" from whom they could seek specific consultation when they felt they needed it. They did not want the coordinator to become involved in checking up on them to make sure they were doing their job. Finally, they wanted the coordinator to assume responsibility for the orientation and training of practicum students and volunteers; a task for which the teachers were presently responsible. In sum, the teachers viewed the new coordinator as a peer and resource person whose tasks would complement theirs and, most importantly, whose presence would alleviate certain aspects of their current work overload.

The director had much different notions about the role of the coordinator. Her highest priority was for the coordinator to "monitor the progress" of each case. This meant that it would be the coordinator's responsibility to meet with each teacher on a regular basis and to evaluate the progress of the various plans and strategies for educating each child. The coordinator was to know which children were making progress and which ones were not. In addition, it would be the coordinator's responsibility to give the teachers feedback about their teaching behavior with the children. Moreover, the coordinator would assume some, but not all, of the parent-training tasks from the teachers. Finally, if there were any additional time, the coordinator would assume some responsibility for the orientation and training of the volunteers. In other words, the director tended to view the coordinator's role as supervisory in relation to the teachers, filling some managerial functions that would allow the director to focus more completely on funding and public relations. She saw the coordinator assuming some of the teachers' tasks, but not to the same degree desired by the teachers.

The last to present her list, the coordinator's views were similar to those of the teachers. She saw parent training as her first priority. Secondly, she saw herself as a "resource" for the teachers, available upon request. She did not want to meet with teachers who did not feel like meeting with her. Lastly, she saw herself assuming the orientation of practicum students and volunteers, but she felt that the teachers should be responsible for the ongoing training of them.

Discussion of the entire team about the three lists followed.

Staff members were asked one another why they felt the way they did and presented their own rationales, in turn. The director expressed a sense of responsibility for the progress of each child. She thought that there should be one person who knew how all the children in the school were progressing. Furthermore, she thought that each teacher should share the responsibility for the children with another person, and that no one person should be solely responsible for the "success or failure" of a particular child. She thought that she was offering the teachers support and "protection," and she found it difficult to understand why they were not accepting it.

For their part, the teachers saw no need for the kind of monitoring that the director believed would be useful. They said that things were going fine now, people were doing their jobs well, and there were not any "problems" that warranted the monitoring of the coordinator. Furthermore, they felt "put down" by the director's desire to create a "supervisory" role. They saw themselves as professionals who were not being treated as such. Why had they been singled for "supervision?" Who "supervises" the psychologist, the counselor, or the director? They felt they were not being treated with the trust and integrity that they deserved. And the coordinator agreed with the teachers.

The consultants allowed the discussion to continue until the staff members started to repeat themselves. Next, the consultants asked both sides to paraphrase why the other side felt the way they did. Then, the group took a three-hour break with the expectation to begin problem solving when they returned.

The problem solving began with brainstorming. The team was asked to generate a list of "alternative" solutions which may represent either new ways of defining the role or compromises that might be acceptable to both the teachers and the director. Team members were encouraged to "use their imagination" and not to think much about whether any particular idea would work. Several suggestions were generated, for example, setting up a system of "peer supervision," giving the teachers a day off per month for planning, and giving the coordinator responsibility for initiating contact with teachers for contracting for supervision.

After the brainstorming came the hard part. Each side was asked to study the alternatives and to present proposals for ways to resolve the conflict and reach an agreement. The proposals were supposed to represent a compromise. Each side was asked to consider what it was willing to give up. They were encouraged to "give a little to get a little."

At this point, the consultants presented a brief lecturette on the various ways groups could make decisions. The following decision-making continuum was presented:

tell/sell   Consultation   Joining   Delegation   no decision

Autocrat   Democrat   Abdicrat

The consultants explained that styles of group decision making range from autocratic in which the leader makes the decision and tells or "sells" it to the group, to the other extreme, abdicratic in which no decision is formally made. Informally, the abdicratic style is an implicit decision to allow everyone to do as they see fit. Moving along the continuum, from both extremes toward the center, are consultation and delegation. Consultation means that while the team leader reserves the right and responsibility for final decision, she requests information and opinions of other team members and takes them in account. Delegation means that the leader or the entire team designate some person or persons to be responsible for the final decision.

At the middle of the continuum is the democratic mode of decision making. This means that the leader joins the team as an equal member with an equal amount of influence on the final decision. In the democratic mode the final decision can be made either by majority or consensus. The consultants stated that it was their impression that the preferred style of this particular team was the democratic, consensual model. All the team members agreed. The consultants then added that the democratic, consensual model was the most difficult to attain, that it required a collaborative effort and a willingness to compromise. If such readiness were not present on the team, the consensual model would fail. In such cases, the decision-making mode then moves toward either the autocratic pole or the abdicratic pole. The consultants told the group that if the consensual model did not work in this case, they would ask the group to make a decision to move toward either the autocratic or abdicratic style.

Following the lecturette on decision making, team members were told to generate proposals for resolution of the conflict. Initially, both sides seemed reluctant to budge from their positions. Then, they began to discuss some of the alternatives presented and to "give a little." The teachers said that a day off a month for planning would give them more time, making it less important for the coordinator to relieve them of all of their parent-training responsibilities. They were still unwilling to accept a "supervisory" role, and offered peer supervision as an alternative. The director would go along with the planning day and the notion of peer supervision, and the idea that the coordinator would assume "some" parent-training responsibilities, but insisted that the coordinator be responsible for "supervision," as well. The staff remained at this impasse for some time and the frustration began to grow.

The consultants reminded the team that they had a choice of reading a "compromise" decision or of deciding to move toward either an autocratic or an abdicratic mode. They asked the staff members to generate some compromise solutions to the "supervision" problem. Several solutions were generated but none seemed satisfactory to both sides and the frustration continued to grow.

Finally, one solution was proposed that seemed to the consultants to have more promise than the others. Someome suggested that the coordinator should have the responsibility for initiating weekly contact with each teacher ... contract for supervision on a particular issue or problem that was of concern to the teacher.

At this point, the consultants took the more active role as mediators. They presented this suggestion to the teachers and asked them either to accept it or clearly state their specific objections. When the teachers refused to accept it, the consultants asked them to state their "worst fantasy" of what would happen if the proposal were adopted. The teachers decided that the worst thing that could happen was that a teacher may not want to discuss anything with the supervisor and will be "forced" to do so. The consultants then incorporated the teachers objection into the proposal and restated it to allow teachers to contract for no supervision on a weekly basis.

The newly stated proposal was then presented for acceptance to the director. When she refused to accept it, the consultants asked her to state her "worst fantasy." She said that she was concerned about a situation in which a particular teacher was consistently doing a bad job with a particular child and was consistently refusing to contract for supervision. Again, the consultants incorporated the director's objection into the proposal by specifying that in cases of teacher irresponsibility the coordinator has the responsibility to initiate contact with the teacher. Finally, in response to the teachers' objection, it was agreed that the final recourse for any conflict between the coordinator and the teacher would be an open meeting of the entire staff. Once all the differences were "ironed out" a final agreement was drafted as follows:

Coordinator's Role

1. Responsibility to initiate contact to contract for weekly supervision with teachers about treatment issues. Teachers are responsible for content of supervision; they have the option to contract for no supervision.
2. Responsibility to initiate feedback to any teacher who is perceived to be consistently irresponsible. Final recourse for any conflict between coordinator and teacher will be an open staff meeting.
3. Responsibility for some (to be defined) parent training.
4. Responsibility for orientation and some (to be defined) training for practicum students.
5. The teachers will formalize a process for ongoing "peer supervision" and present it to the director.
6. The children will stay home one day per month, to allow a day for teacher planning.

The staff had worked for eight hard and frustrating hours to finally reach this agreement. When it was reached, there was a new sense of accomplishment, pride, and cohesion in the team; a "we did it!" feeling. "Well," said one team member, "it's definitely time to party," as he brought out a bottle of wine and passed around the styrofoam cups. From the consultant's points of view, team building was definitely occurring.

The next morning, the team proceeded with its agenda. It was obvious that it would be impossible to cover all of the remaining items during the second day. At the suggestion of the consultants, the team agreed to review the feedback sheets and to conduct a survey or brief discussion of each of the remaining agenda items during the first hour and a half. The rest of the day would be set aside for "staff communication."

The first item to be reviewed by the group was the counselor's role. The consultants displayed the data to the group:

<u>The Counselor's Role</u>

1. The role affects everyone.
2. There is some unclarity about the counselor's role. Some people do not know what he does, while others feel they do know. Some of his work may not be directly observable to others on the staff.
3. It may be helpful if the counselor were relieved of some of the clerical aspects of his work, to free him for more follow-through work and other things.

Through previous interviews with the director and the psychologist, the consultants were aware that the counselor's role had been a recurring problem for the staff. Clarification of the counselor's role had been raised before and it had never been satisfactorily carried out. After the data were presented, a survey of the team took place. Each team member stated his or her reactions and views about the information on the counselor's role. By and large, the teachers who had little day-to-day contact with the counselor, and rarely felt the effects of his actions, agreed that the counselor's role was ambiguous and that at times it seemed as if the counselor was not doing anything crucial for the school. On the other hand, the director and the psychologist, who had considerable contact with the counselor, and who were often in touch with the effects of his actions, disagreed. To them, the counselor's role was clear and it was evident that he was doing a fine job at very important tasks. The counselor himself felt somewhat defensive, bewildered, and frustrated. He knew he worked hard, yet somehow what he was doing was not getting across to the majority of his colleagues. Over time, these feelings seemed to be eroding his sense of self-confidence and contribution to the team.

After the survey and brief discussion, one of the consultants began to comment on the situation. "You know," she began, "I've seen this kind of thing over and over again. It doesn't suprise me in the least that the counselor happens to be at the brunt of this disagreement. As a matter of fact, I'd be suprised if he weren't." Team members were silent and looked to the consultant with some suprise. She continued: "You see, it's highly probable, that the 'place' that the counselor is in this group and the feelings about his job have less to do with his competence of performance than with his particular position in the organization and the particular way in which his role is defined. You see, the counselor is on what we call the 'boundary' of the organization, facing outwards a great deal of the time. This means that most of the work that he does is directed towards persons outside of the team; coordinating with other community organizations, monitoring the selection and entry of families and children for treatment, and other tasks that do not bear specifically on the direct services that you teachers perform. Because you teachers are so indirectly affected by the counselor's work, you are the ones who have the most difficulty being clear about what he does. On the other hand, those of you whose jobs allow them more contact with the counselor and his outside contacts seem quite satisfied with the job he is doing. It seems to me that the problem here is one of communication. It may be important for the counselor to take some time to let others know what he is doing and in this way prevent the kind of isolation that is bound to surround anybody who happens to be occupying his role in the organization."

What the consultant had done in this situation was to redefine for the team the nature of the conflict the team members were experiencing. The initial tendency of the team members, being so "close" to the situation and personally involved in it, was to see the "problem" as emanating from the individual personality of competence of the counselor. From their perspective, if a "problem" existed, it most likely existed "in" somebody. The solution that follows from this line of reasoning is to identify that individual and to change him. The consultant introduced a new perspective. Her basic assertion was that the "problem" may not exist inside a particular person but rather it emanates from things that happen between people; from the ways that their specific role and tasks are designated to fit together.

Just the introduction of this social psychological perspective had the effect of reducing some of the tension in the team. The counselor was visibly relieved for he had finally received some support for the demands of his job. The other team members began to consider the consultant's statement, agreeing that the lack of contact and communication between the counselor and themselves, could, indeed, account for the feelings they had been experiencing. Finally, the group decided that at the next staff meeting, the counselor would take some time to let the others know what kind of things he is doing.

The next item on the agenda was "staff/child relationships." As with the other items, the consultants displayed the data they had collected.

Staff/Child Relationships

1. Involves the entire staff.
2. There is some disagreement among the staff about what kind of aversives and controls are appropriate to use with the children.
3. There is concern among the staff about sarcastic remarks about children being made by staff members in the children's presence.

A survey of the staff's reactions to the data clearly indicated that the issues presented were of utmost concern to the entire staff and they agreed to spend a major segment of the next staff meeting discussing these issues.

Finally, the data on the "other issues" portion of the agenda presented:

Other Issues

1. How do we keep the staff from getting "burnt-out?"
2. Where does our responsibility for the children and families end?
3. Are our salaries equitably distributed or should we consider new criteria?
4. We need more clerical help!!

The entire team agreed that all of these issues warranted further discussion at future meetings.

It had taken approximately an hour and a half to move through this portion of the agenda. The team took a break for coffee and conversation and returned to devote the remainder of the day and evening to "staff communication.

To begin the session of staff communication, the consultants presented these data about staff communication to the team members:

Staff Communication

1. It involves the entire staff.
2. Discontent and resentment among staff members, often, are not expressed directly to persons about whom it is felt. It is often expressed to others.
3. People are not sure if "jokes" between staff members are jokes, or if they are making indirect statements of criticism.
4. The director and the staff need to communicate more.

A survey of the team followed the presentation and clarification of the data. All agreed that the data accurately reflected some of the dynamics of the team.

At this point, the consultants took the initiative and introduced a procedure for exchanging interpersonal feedback. From the outset, this procedure was designed to give all members maximum control over the feedback they would receive. All team members were given a large sheet of newsprint and asked to make two lists. The first was a list of their own behaviors that were helpful; the second was a list of their own behaviors that were "not helpful." Another way of looking at this was that they were to make lists of what they felt were their own strengths and weaknesses in relation to the team.

When all of the team members had completed their lists, they were asked to post them on the walls around the room. Then, all the team members were asked to "mill around" and read each of the other team member's lists and to add their own comments. In this fashion, each team member ended up with a list of "helpful" and "unhelpful" behaviors, as the other team members perceived them. The process of completing one another's list took about 45 minutes. When all the lists were completed, each team member took some time along to read and consider the feedback they had just received.

The consultants then laid the ground rules for the remainder of this feedback session. They explained that the feedback received by each team member, belonged to that member, and consequently, each member needed to choose how to use the feedback he or she had just received. Several options were presented. First of all, the team members could choose simply to consider the feedback personally and decide if there was some information that was useful to them for their future reference. Under this option, it would not be necessary to discuss any of the feedback with the team. If the entire team decided to choose this option, the discussion would end immediately.

Another option was for each team member to seek clarification about his or her feedback. Perhaps some of the feedback was unclear, not specific enough, or more information about the others' perceptions was needed. In the latter case, one person may ask the other team members to describe which of his or her behaviors led to their perceptions. Alternatively, one team member may want feedback from other team members on a particular issue raised by one or two team members. When team members choose the option of asking for clarification, it is their responsibility to initiate the request and to be clear about exactly what they want from whom.

The third and final option enabled each team member to "contract" for feedback in the future about a particular behavior. Under this option, team members could decide that they might benefit from knowing exactly what they were doing to create a particular perception or reaction at the time they were doing it. This could be useful either to help clear up any misunderstandings right on the spot, or to help a person change behavior of which they might not be aware.

The consultants' role was to facilitate and to clarify communication. If a team member asked for further clarification from another member on a specific behavior, the consultants might help the former to clearly state his or her request and to ask the latter to paraphrase the request to ensure accurate communication. When further clarification was provided, the consultants might ask the receiver to paraphrase it and to describe some examples of specific instances when such behavior occurred. They would then check to see if the other members shared the perception of those instances as an example of the behavior.

The consultants were also concerned with the team's emotional tone. They realized that team members might be sensitive to feedback about unhelpful behaviors and personal weaknesses so they tried to ensure that such feedback was given clearly and constructively. Constructive feedback focuses on behaviors that the receiver has the power to change. It is not evaluative nor is it judgmental. The consultants were also concerned with the level of receptivity of each team member to feedback. They realized that there is such a thing as too much feedback at one time, and would intervene to regulate the process as the need arose.

Following the presentation of the options and a discussion of the consultants' role, the team members took responsibility for their own feedback sessions. What followed was an eight-hour group discussion that would take an additional chapter to describe in any meaningful way. Each team member had a turn to ask for clarification about some bit of feedback, and most contracted for ongoing feedback from specific individuals or the group as a whole.

In the case just described, the primary designs for team building were data feedback and confrontation. Using these designs, the consultants identified the problem areas for the team and moved them into constructive problem solving and conflict resolution. To aid in the team building, the consultants made use of educational inputs about the nature of team building, about the various methods of making decisions, and about how different kinds of organizational pressures stemming from the structure and function of the team create stress among team members. Equally important, the consultants provided a well organized design through which team members could constructively confront one another with their differences and successfully reach a negotiated compromise, resulting in each member feeling a degree of influence over the final decision. As time went on, it became more and more clear to all that the interpersonal processes of the retreat were more important than any particular outcome or solution that was decided upon.

It is clear too that the skills and competencies of the consultants were important variables in the success of the team-building experience. Such competence is a result of adequate training in the technology of team building and experience in applying it. It is no suprise, then, that the cost of such outside consultation is high, and as a result is beyond the fiscal reach of many school districts. This is particularly true for districts that have made a major commitment to the team model throughout their system. This presents a problem, as team building experiences, such as the one described above are critical for continued effective team functioning. It is just this problem that has led some school districts to establish cadres of organizational specialists within their district.

Cadres of Organizational Specialists Within School Districts

Cadres of organizational specialists are district-wide teams composed of in-district personnel who have been trained in the theory and technology of organization development and team building. These specialists function as part-time consultants while carrying out their full-time teaching, coordinating, or administrative responsibilities. Their training and functioning is often carried out on their own time and on a voluntary basis, although some relief may be provided in some districts.

Members of the cadre use their understanding and skills to help others in the district clarify communication, reach out to use relevant resources, systematically solve problems and make decisions, assess progress toward educational goals, and cope with the stress of interdependence and conflict in a productive way. They work with teaching teams, building staffs, district-wide teams, management teams, and parent, student, and community teams. In addition, they offer inservice training courses in organization development theory and skills for individuals in the district.

Cadres of organizational specialists are now an integral part of two school districts in the Pacific Northwest. One in Kent, Washington, has been operating since 1969; the other in Eugene, Oregon, since 1971. These cadres were initially trained and installed by members of the Program on Strategies of Organizational Change in the research and development section of the Center for Educational Policy and Management at the University of Oregon in Eugene. A document by Arends and Phelps entitled Establishing Organizational Specialists Within School Districts describes the way school districts can create and maintain cadres on their own (see the annotated bibliography below for additional information).

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 6)

Arends, R.I. and J.H. Phelps. Establishing Organizational Specialists Within School Districts. Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, 1973, (mimeo).

This document describes how two cadres of organizational specialists were established, their rationale, the success of their work, and provides practical guidelines for the establishment of cadres in other school districts.

Beckhard, R. Organization Development: Strategies and Models. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

This booklet defines organization development as an effort planned organization-wide and managed from the top to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's processes, using behavioral-science knowledge. The term "change manager" is used to refer to those who are responsible for the organization's operations and effectiveness and who must accept major management responsibility in any planned organization or unit-wide change effort. The term "change agent" is used to refer to those people, either inside or outside the organization, who are providing technical, specialist or consulting assistance in the management of a change effort. Alternative arrangements for linking organizations and outside resources and for the use of internal change agents are described.

Boyer, R.K. Development for the New Organizational Team. Business Quarterly, 1969, 34, 64-71.

This article focuses on the use of laboratory methods in an organizational development program designed to enhance the effectiveness of new organizational teams. The general problems facing the new organizational teams and the organizations which form them are portrayed as follows: (1) What resources will the new team need? (2) How will the new team use its resources? (3) How soon, if ever, will the new team become effective? Seven main areas of concern in organizational development programs are identified: (1) the authority structure versus a multitude of complex interpersonal working relationships which bridge functions and individuals; (2) interdependency among people and functions; (3) the creative management of uncertainty; (4) the management of conflict; (5) openness, direct communication, trust, self-insight, and interpersonal competence; (6) relationships with dynamic environments; and (7) a systems approach to interrelated individual skills, attitudes and behavior, interpersonal relationships and competence, organizational structure and policies, and organizational technology.

Harrison, R. Role Negotiation: A Tough-Minded Approach to Team Development. In Burke and Hornstein (Eds.), The Social Technology of Organization Development. Fairfax, Virginia: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1972. Pp. 84-96.

This article presents a "self-interest" model of role negotiation as a means for resolving role conflict in teams.

Jones, R.V. Tuning Up the Staff for Organizational Change. Secondary Education. 1969, 44, 339-346.

The author suggests six steps which seem appropriate to any major organizational innovation: (1) the examination of present practices; (2) the clarification of purposes; (3) the examination of new models; (4) the development of new skills; (5) the protection of change; and (6) the feedback for growth. Three conditions for change are as follows: (1) an atmosphere of freedom which encourages thoughtful experimentation; (2) an organization hierarchy which not only values competence but also assumes competence in all staff members; and (3) an organization in which decisions are made as close to the operational level as is possible.

Fox, R.S., R.A. Schmuck, E.M. Van Egmond, M. Ritvo, C. Jung. Diagnosing Professional Climate of Schools. Fairfax, Virginia: NTL Learning Corporation, Inc., 2817 Dorr Avenue, 1973.

This manual is designed to help staff members assess and improve the professional climate of their schools. It has two main parts: part one presents ideas and concepts relevant to the process of educational change, the school as a system, and organizational problem solving; part two consists of a series of instruments which can be used to measure key aspects of a school system's capability for self-renewal.

Pino, R., R. Emory, and C. Jung. Preparing Educational Training Consultants. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1973.

This is a packaged program for training OD consultants for schools and districts.

Schein, E.H. Process Consultation: Its Role in Organization Development. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

In standard consultation models, the consultant gives expert advice on how to solve a particular problem which the organization has identified and is concerned about passing on his knowledge, whereas in process consultation it is assumed that the organization does not know how to use its own resources effectively either in initial problem solution or in implementation of solutions and the process consultant is concerned about passing on his skills and values.

Schmuck, R.A. Developing Teams of Organizational Specialists. In R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), Organization Development in Schools. Palo Alto: National Press Books, 1971. Pp. 213-230.

This article describes the uses of a cadre of organizational specialists in a school district. Some notes on building a cadre are included.

Schmuck, R.A. Incorporating Survey Feedback in OD Interventions. (Presented to the American Educational Research Association, 1973.) Occasional Paper of CEPM-CASEA, University of Oregon, 1973.

This article describes methods of using data feedback in OD interventions and team-building.

Schmuck, R.A., P.J. Runkel, S.L. Saturen, R.T. Martell, and C.B. Derr. Handbook of Organization Development in Schools. Palo Alto: National Press Books, 1972.

This book provides a collection of directions and specifications useful in the practical application of OD techniques. It is designed as a reference tool and as an action-oriented guide. The first two chapters explain the overall concepts necessary for planning intervention in schools and districts and set the framework for the rest of the Handbook. In particular, they serve as an introduction and guide to Chapters 3 through 8, each of which presents a rationale and methods for improving a particular function of the school organization. Let us use Chapter 3 as an example. Discussing the clarification of communication, it begins by presenting the concepts and principles that are pertinent to the problem of communication and follows these with a few short readings relating the authors' ideas to the larger literature. Next, the chapter provides some tools for assessing the present condition of communication in an organization. Exercises are described by which organizational members can examine their own communicative processes and learn some new methods of face-to-face communication. Then the authors offer some procedures for use in several situations that are likely to arise during an organization's actual work day. Finally, ways of building training episodes are described to help increase the flow and clarity of communication. Each of the chapters 3-8 has a similar structure. The last two chapters discuss designing and evaluating training programs. The emphasis in OD is on the system as a target for change, rather than on isolated individuals, but each member of the system is actively involved in the assessment, diagnosis and transformation of his own organization.

Walton, R.F. Interpersonal Peacemaking: Confrontation and Third Party Consultation. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

The author offers some provocative insights into the complexities of the third party role; his approach involves improving intergroup relations by improving relations between their representatives.

"meeting debriefing."

Members thoughts and feelings. After the meeting is over, it is important to collect information about the cognitive and affective reactions of the members to the meeting. Important questions to assess the team's effectiveness are: Do members end up with a clear idea of what was discussed or decided, or are they confused and need to check with the formal team leader at a later time? Do the decisions that were made at the meeting or the actions that were planned, get carried out? Are there opinions and feelings that were not expressed during the meeting that only get expressed in two- or three-way conversations after the meeting is over? Do members leave the meeting with a sense of satisfaction and accomplishments or senses of boredom or frustration? Answers to queries such as these will give an indication of how effective the meeting was and of how effectively the team is acting.

Recognizing an effective meeting. Along with the above three clusters of meeting behavior, there are additional behaviors that can serve as guideposts in assessing how well a team is performing. These are as follows:

(1) Team members do not ignore seriously intended contributions. It is important for team members to know the effect of their remarks on other team members. When other members do not respond, speakers cannot know whether they did not hear their remark, or whether they understood it and agreed with it, or understood it but disagreed with it, or whether they thought it was irrelevant. Team members whose contributions are ignored will tend to become discouraged and not continue to participate. This will ultimately limit the team's use of all of its resources.

(2) Team members check to make sure they know what a speaker means

before they agree or disagree with his or her contribution. There is frequent use of paraphrase, impression checks and summaries to clarify assumptions about what others are meaning and feeling.

(3) Team members speak for themselves. Team members sta their reactions are their own. They do not attribute them to others or give the impression they are speaking for others. ...ey try to stay away from statements like "most teachers feel" or "... s would appreciate," etc.

(4) All contributions are viewed as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decides. Team members who make suggestions do not have to defend them against others. The entire group assumes responsibility for evaluating it, along wi... all other suggestions.

(5) Team members participate in different but complimentary ways. While some team members are fulfilling work functions, others carry out social-emotional functions. Thus, while some members may be pro...ding information, others are attending to members reactions to it. Also, members participate in the work as it reflects their interests and capacities.

(6) Whenever the team senses it is having trouble getting work done, it tries to find the reason. Team members are easily able to shift the discussion from the work to social-emotional issues when symptoms of difficulty arise, like hair-splitti..., obvious points are repeated over and over, polarization of the team, apathetic participation, etc.

(7) Team members recognize that they are always making decisions, and they do openly and purposefully, rather than by default. On any issue the team may decide to take action or not to take action. They can decide openly not to take action, or they can take no action by default. Decisions by default are often unclear and are felt as failures by team members and create tension and a low sense of commitment among them. Also, team members

tend to see each decision as an experiment which can be carried out, evaluated, and revised in the light of experience. Also, team members are aware, in each case, of how the decision is going to be made.

(8) Team members express disagreement and bring conflict out into the open and deal with it. Members recognize that conflict is inevitable and may even be valuable to the team. They know that the choice is theirs as to whether the conflict will be open and subject to team control, or disguised, and out of team control.

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 4)

Cartwright, D. and R. Lippitt, "Group Dynamics and the Individual" in International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 7(1), 1957, pp. 86-102.

This discussion of the relation between individuals and groups centers on conformity pressures which can foster heterogeneity or uniformity of thinking and behavior and on the potential strenghtening of both individuals and groups by qualitative improvements in the nature of interdependence between integrated individuals and cohesive groups. Individual satisfaction, group productivity, and adaptability are affected by the quality of relationships between the individual members and the team.

Gibb, J.R. and L.M. Gibb, "Humanistic Elements in Group Growth" from J. Bugental, Challenges in Humanistic Psychology, pp. 161-170. McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1967.

The authors' research indicates four significant and interdependent dimensions which are relevant to group health: (1) the degree of reciprocal trust among members; (2) the validity of the feedback system and effectiveness of concensual decision making; (3) the determination and assessment of group goals; and (4) the degree of real interdependence in the system; are important indicators of the quality of group functioning.

Gilmore, S.K., The Counselor in Training. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973, pp. 230-261.

Communication processes are described and exemplified in pp. 230-261. Although the book is directed to beginning counselors the communication practice and explanations are useful to a group who wants to understand and improve their communication behaviors. Such things as nonverbal behavior, paraphrasing, perception checking and description of behavior and feelings are included.

Hare, P.A., E.F. Borgatta, and R.F. Bales, (Eds.), Small Groups: Studies in Social Action. A.A. Knopf, Revised edition, 1965.

A good, though old (originally published in 1955) collection of writings on the historical and theoretical background of groups, the individual in social situations and the group as a system of social interaction. Such specifics as decision making, leadership, feedback and communication, and problem solving are subjects of the articles included.

Hinton, B.L., and H.J. Rice, Groups and Organizations. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971.

A number of readings on group and organizational theory and functioning. Quite a few of the articles discuss conflict within and between groups. There are also articles on cohesiveness, leadership, decision making, etc.

Katz, D. and R.L. Kahn. "The Psychological Basis of Organizational Effectiveness," in Katz and Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966, pp. 336-389.

This chapter develops a framework for understanding the relat ship between behaviors that are required to achieve high le f organizational effectiveness and various motivational patterns inherent in the structure of organizations. Four motivational patterns, i.e., (1) legal compliance, (2) instrumental sa sfaction, (3) self-expression, and (4) internalization of organizational goals, are each analyzed in terms of its ability to generate three patterns of behavior required for organizational effectiveness, i.e., ~~(1)~~ joining and remaining in the organization, (2) dependably performing assigned roles, and (3) engaging in occasional innovative and cooperative behavior. The chapter concludes with a review of the empirical research that bears upon the framework.

Lambert, W.W. and W.E. Lambert, Social Psychology, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964. Chapter 6, "The Individual in Group Settings."

This chapter discusses the effects of group membership on the behavior of individuals. Some ideas about conformity, leadership, group communication networks, democratic-autocratic and cooperative-competitive group structures and intergroup conflict are briefly stated and exemplified.

Lippitt, G.L. Organization Renewal. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969, p. 315.

The author blends behavioral and managerial science with his own experience in presenting a frame of reference for initiating and maintaining organization renewal processes. The chapter on work groups in organizations is a theoretical discussion of teamwork in terms of what factors affect group effectiveness; what is characteristic of teamwork and a "healthy" team and how can a leader contribute to effective group functioning.

Steiner, I.D., Group Process and Productivity. New York and London: Adademic Press, 1972.

How well a group performs a task depends on three classes of variables: task demands, resources and process. Task demands include the requirements imposed by the task itself or by the rules under which the task must be performed. Resources include all relevant knowledge, abilities, skills, or tools possessed by the individuals attempting to perform the task. Process consists of the actual steps taken by an individual or group when confronted by a task, the individual or collective actions of those who have been assigned a task. The discussion covers types of tasks, effects of group size and group heterogeneity and homogeneity, a note on cohesion and a final chapter on the group as a system and on group process.

Wallen, J. "The Interpersonal Gap," in Schmuck and Runkel Handbook of Organization Development in Schools, National Press Books, 1972. Pp. 82-86.

In this article, Wallen notes that the difference between the effect that one's actions actually produce in another person and the effect that one intends to produce is often quite large. He calls this discrepancy the "interpersonal gap." Both intentions and effects are private. Only actions are observable and their meaning is ambiguous. This is the dilemma posed by the interpersonal gap.

Chapter 5

Convening Educational Teams

We have already described the importance of face-to-face interactions for a team's functioning. Most of the important work and social-emotional processes can be seen at meetings. By attending to interpersonal interactions at team meetings, the team member can discern the team's behavioral norms which, in turn, reflect the team's goals, approved procedures, and affective climate. The kinds of communication encouraged at team meetings indicate the expectations and skills members use to coordinate their efforts. The amount of time devoted to goal setting and goal refining indicates the importance team members give them in relation to other activities. Assumptions shared about the functions of conflict can be noted in the ways in which opposing views are uncovered and handled. Comparisons also can be made among problem-solving and decision-making activities to understand how team members have organized to accomplish their tasks. Finally, one can watch the degree to which participants comment on the ways in which they conduct their meetings, and attend to how they assess changes in their group processes.

Role of the Convener

Educational teams work more effectively in meetings when a member is clearly designated as the convener for the session. The convener acts as the discussion leader, facilitating yet not dominating the communications.

The convener is not to act passively, but forcefully and definitely in relation to the team's work and social-emotional processes.

Tasks of the team are important to the convener, but so are the ways that the team accomplishes its tasks. The convener steers the group to discuss its social-emotional processes when that would be helpful. She or he should be aware of team members who appear to be outside of the discussion. At the same time, the convener must be conscious of time and help move the team along. In our model of how teams should act during meetings, the convener owns the legitimate authority for conducting the meeting and thus should like the official leader of the team during the meeting.

No matter how important the convener feels the discussion to be at some particular moment, he or she should remember that the group members have made an implicit pact to discuss certain items during the meeting and to end at a stated time. If the team seems to be taking too much time for one agenda item, the convener should call this to the attention of the team, and ask something such as, "Do you wish to subtract time from other items, cancel one or more items, extend the meeting, or what?" Conveners should demand a procedural decision, but they need not choose a solution or even suggest one. The team is usually capable of doing this; when they are not, it is useful to discover the fact.

Modeling communication skills. The person taking the role of the convener should be especially conscious of using effective communication skills. We have found the most important skills to be: paraphrasing, impression checking, describing behaviors, describing own feelings, and taking surveys.

(1) Paraphrasing. This is a skill for checking with another team member to be sure you understand his or her statements as they were intended.

It is a skill used for reducing potential miscommunication. When paraphrasing, state in your own words what the other person's statement meant to you. This skill does not involve a simple repeating of the other's words. Rather it entails showing the other that you have understood his or her meaning. Examples include, Is this . . . (statement) . . . an accurate understanding of your idea?" or "Would this be an example of your point?" (followed by a statement of a specific example). Paraphrasing is an essential skill for effective work processes in teams and should be employed often by the convener.

(2) Impression checking. When using this skill, you describe what you believe to be the other person's feelings or inner state in order to check if you are accurate. For example, "I get the impression you'd like to change the subject. Is that accurate?" Impression checking can also be targeted at identifying feeling states shared by several team members. For example, "I sense that several people would like to move on to another topic. Am I right?" The skill is similar to paraphrasing; however, in impression checking, the convener focuses on the affective aspects of a message rather than the cognitive aspects. When trying an impression check, you should be careful to be tentative in your description of the other's feeling, and stay away from evaluating it as being favorable or unfavorable on attempting to explain or interpret it.

(3) Describing behaviors. This skill entails reporting specific observable behaviors of the other or the team without evaluating or making any kind of statement concerning his or her intentions, attitudes, and personality. The object of describing behaviors objectively is to provide the other with a clear idea of the specific behavior to which you are responding. For example, "Dick and Allen have done nearly all the talking and the rest of us have said very little."

The astute convener will often use behavior descriptions together with one of the other communication skills such as impression checking or describing feelings (defined below). When used with an impression check, the behavior description tells the other which of his or her behaviors have led you to speculate that he or she may be feeling a certain way. For example, "You don't look at me when you speak to the team -- you usually look at Joe or Mike. Do you trust them more than you trust me?" When used in tandem with a description of feelings, the behavior description lets the other know the impact of his or her behavior on your experience. For example, "You look at Joe and Mike when you are addressing the team more than you look at me and I feel hurt and left out when you are doing that."

(4) Describing own feelings. Describing your own feelings entails specifically identifying your feeling by name, analogy, or figure of speech so that others understand what you are experiencing. Describing your feelings should be distinguished from expressing your feelings. Feelings get expressed in many different ways and many different feelings get expressed the same way, so that the expression of feelings tends to be ambiguous and subject to misinterpretations. Describing own feelings should also be distinguished from presenting an idea or action plan. When describing a feeling, make sure that the statement includes an emotional state that is taking place inside of you. Typically, for example, phrases that begin with "I feel that" usually involve ideas and recommendations rather than feelings. For example, "I feel that you are wrong" is not a direct feeling description. The sentence could have been: "I think that you are wrong." But, "I feel angry by what you just said!" is clearly a feeling description.

(5) Taking surveys. In taking a survey, the convener asks that members of the team respond with their thoughts and feelings on a particular

subject. The survey begins with one team member stating the question, issue, or decision. Next, someone else paraphrases it to make certain it has been understood. Then every one, in turn, states his or her position or opinion on the issue, trying to be as succinct as possible. During the survey, the team has an implicit pact that no member is allowed to remain silent. Even if a member has no opinion or nothing to say, that member must explicitly say so. Any member of the team, not just the convener, can call for a survey at any time and it automatically pre-empts the team's attention until every member has spoken.

Clarifying team goals. Another important function of the convener is to help the team to clarify its core goals. There are a variety of ways to accomplish this and the convener should have a repertoire of techniques. The convener can introduce brainstorming -- which involves throwing out ideas without attending to their reasonableness or feasibility. Another is an exercise that encourages team members to fantasize about how things might ideally be. Or, contrastingly, the convener can encourage team members to use behavior description when discussing team goals. The last point is very important, especially if the team hopes to assess how well it is doing on pursuing its goals.

The language used in ... statements should finally be precise and operational. The words chosen should describe specific behaviors or carefully delimited concepts. For example, "team meetings will have a rotating convener and will include seven minutes of debriefing at the end," or "Any student leaving the 1 - 2 team will be able to count to 200, add combinations up to 2", and be able to measure in pounds, feet, and inches," etc. The more precise the words are the more likely several different people reading the goal statement will get the same understanding of it.

The convener should encourage the team to discuss goals in terms of <u>who</u> will be doing <u>what</u> and <u>when</u>. If one goal of a lower grade teaching team is to have students "get a good start in reading" it is important that the team's understanding of a "good start in reading" is made very clear. Does it mean that by the end of five months of school, each child will be eagerly working during the reading lesson? Does it mean that by June, each child will be able to work out the words presented in the first year reader independently? Does it mean that after six months, every child will be able to enjoy and read some book in the school library? Whatever particular team members have in mind, the goal statement must communicate that meaning as clearly as possible to all members and for example, to any parent of a first grader who asks about reading goals. The communication skills described above can facilitate the team's getting clear on goals.

Several exercises can be initiated by the convener to help the team arrive at important goal statements:

(1) <u>Say it another way</u>. The team sits in a circle. A topic for getting to some goal statements is decided upon such as the team's meetings or the team's work goals, etc. Each time team members state an idea that they believe to be relevant or important to the team's goals, the discussion is momentarily stopped and the convener asks the team to find as many statements as possible which paraphrase the original idea. Members try in turn to come up with restatements until no one can find a reasonable alternative paraphrase. The convener should encourage the team to arrive at the very best goal statements for any particular topic.

(2) <u>Brainstorming</u>. This activity can be a useful way of generating lots of ideas for goal statements. One or more team members stand at a blackboard or newsprint pad. For a prescribed time-period, perhaps 5

minutes, team members call out ideas they have for goal statements. The statements are to be as brief as possible; no one stops to evaluate any idea; and little time is spent for clarification. Ideas are thrown out as quickly as they can be uttered and the convener tries to keep the atmosphere light and creative. After the brainstorming is over, time is taken to explore and evaluate the goal statements that have been generated. Ultimately, the team selects some of the goal statements to guide its work.

(3) Fantasizing the future. One way for the convener to lead team members toward making goal statements is to have them fantasize how they would most like things to be 5 years from now team member lists on newsprint ways things might be different in the .. The lists might contain different ways of working, different tasks to be working on, different emotional climates within the team or between the team and its environment, and so forth. The newsprint lists are put upon the wall and team members read one another's lists. Some time is taken to clarify what is on the lists so that all members understand what is there. Team members again move around the room looking at the lists and putting checks by the three statements on each list which they find most important to them. A master list is then made, combining similar statements and grouping compatible ideas.

The statements ~~on these~~ lists should be discussed thoroughly and understood fully by the team members. During the discussion, the statements should be restated, ~~refined, and~~ clarified. Some of the statements will be eliminated while others may be extended or divided into several more specific goal statements. As the restatements are offered, the convener should help the team to focus on who would be doing what, and when.

Team members may find that they agree on the stated goals but do not move toward them in a concerted fashion. By observing the team members